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**W**ANTED, a steady Man, as WAITER. Apply Rainbow Tavern, Pitt-street.

**W**ANTED SITUATIONS, by a single man, a

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**W**ANTED, a TILE-MAKER, also Two young MEN, accustomed to a brick-yard. Apply, by evening 8 o'clock, to Mr. J. H. Larter, 92, South Head Road.

**W**ANTED, a steady, respectable Person (Protestant) as General SERVANT. Inquire, from 3 till 5 o'clock, day, Mrs. Ball, Balmaln.

**W**ANTED, to purchase HOUSES or Shops, in good situations, in the city of Sydney. Apply to Messrs. Bilyard and Curtis, solicitors, 32, Hunter-street.

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**W**ANTED, two respectable young Women, one

**W**ANTED, Married Butler, Wife, Cook and Lau-  
dresses; one for country bank, Man to garden, &  
several for farm stations, an experienced Puntman, English  
Ploughmen, and Shepherds able to shear; Lad to drive  
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**WANTED,** to notify to Families requiring Change of Air, that a first-class establishment is open for hire above at Ashfield, within an easy distance of the station by railway. The house is commodious, lofty rooms, with verandah and balconies, and ample grounds for exercise. N.B.—A separate table for each family. Apply at Mill House, Ashfield; or J. C. Olue, 182, Pitt-street.

**ORGANIST**, salary sixty pounds (£60) per annum also for the Ipswich Philharmonic Society an experienced **CONDUCTOR**, who can arrange for and conduct the bands as well as the vocalists. Salary to commence with five pounds (£40). Applications with copies of testimonials regarding character and competency, to be forwarded before the 10th October, to the Churchwardens, care of the



## ICE-MARKED ROCKS.

REVIEWING the recently published work—  
"First and Last"—by John P. Campbell, the  
Times of 23rd June remarks:—

In his paper on this subject in the "Geological Transactions" Sir John Herschel has given a table showing the amount of heat which would be received by the earth for different lengths of the minor axis, from which it appears that "a variation of the eccentricity of the orbit from the circular form to that of an ellipse having an eccentricity of one-fourth of the major axis would produce only a variation of three per cent. on the mean annual amount of solar radiation." But the possible amount of eccentricity of the orbit of our earth has never yet been satisfactorily determined, and although it would seem at first sight that so small a variation as three per cent. in the amount of heat received by our globe in the year could not affect any great change in climate, yet it will appear from a closer consideration of the subject that the effect of the sun's heat is to maintain the temperature of the earth's surface at its actual mean height, "not above the zero of the thermometer, but above the temperature of the celestial spaces out of the reach of the sun's influence." Now, as regards the temperature of the interstellar regions, Sir John Herschel and M. Fourier have arrived at very different conclusions; but, according to the former of these philosophers, if we assume an extreme case, and suppose, for instance, that the orbit of our globe should become as eccentric as that of the planet Pallas, a change of climate would result fully commensurate to the demands of any geologist. Now, without adopting the very ingenious hypothesis of Herschel in these changes, we think it extremely probable that these changes of climate will ultimately be shown to be dependent on some law or phenomena of the heavenly bodies, of which we are as yet entirely ignorant, or of which we can predicate little more than arbitrary assumption. This, of course, will be amply sufficient to draw down upon us the anathemas of all orthodox astronomers, but for ourselves we cannot escape the conclusion.

It may be objected to this speculation that we have no reason to conclude from the phenomena of the "drift" of modern geologists that a period of cold in the new Pliocene epoch was universal; but, indeed, as far as researches have advanced hitherto, it seems exceedingly probable that a universality of lowering of temperature would not be required to support the hypothesis we have sketched. That the climate of Southern Europe was very different from what it is now we think clearly established, though, perhaps, we have no direct evidence as yet of a climate fit to support glaciers at moderate levels in the latitude of Malta, Algiers, Tunis, and Candia, which would be required in the hypothesis of Agassiz.

The theory of Mr. Campbell possesses this obvious advantage, that it recurs again to causes which we know to be actually at work. He seems to think that the cold of the post-pliocene glacial epoch was caused by a marine current flowing from arctic regions, the refrigerating power of which was sufficient to effect the most extreme changes in climate. We cannot discover that Mr. Campbell has anywhere formally stated that all varieties of climate in geological time were due to the changing of direction of various marine currents flowing from different parts of the earth; but as we believe that this must follow legitimately from the principles which he has enunciated, we shall consider his work as the exposition of a new general theory of changes of climate.

Mr. Campbell has certainly shown in detail that the great north-east to south-west arctic current, in traversing the Atlantic from Spitzbergen, by Cape Farewell, to Labrador and Newfoundland, must scrape and score many intervening rocks; that the advance of coast ice must deposit many small stones and large boulders, and he argues from this that ever since the conformation of the polar regions was in anything like its present condition, and the climate was not influenced by terrestrial heat or any comical cause, arctic ice-bearing currents of enormous refrigerating power must have flowed in a south-westerly direction.

Thus the glacial period represented by one of the old systems of scratched rocks of Western Ireland, Central and Eastern Scotland, Scandinavia, and parts of Russia our author considers due to the glacial action of an arctic current flowing from Novaya Zemlya through the country now occupied by the Scandinavian isthmus, and which only ceased to flow in a south-westerly direction through this tract when the rising of the isthmus deflected the stream to Greenland, and he labours hard to prove that striae well preserved exist on the tops of isolated hills 2000 feet high in the supposed tract of this "Baltic current."

Commencing as close as we are able to the source of the supposed current, the first evidence is presented by the present condition and natural monuments of Lapland. It was in Northern Scandinavia that our author first conceived the notion of a Baltic current, after four long holidays spent in wandering about the country where Russia, Sweden, and Norway join. He describes this country in latitude 70 degrees north as being intensely glaciated and covered with boulders which are arranged in long rows, often filling up rock basins, and also as perched blocks scattered everywhere over the land; but adds that the superficial outline of the country—the watershed—has resulted evidently from denudation and not from central upheaval. He, however, positively asserts that land ice could not have produced the appearance:—

"With Swiss glaciers uppermost in the mental picture gallery, the first impression was that land ice had followed the course of the Scandinavian rivers, and that the Gulf of Bothnia was the estuary in which the eastern side of the system combined to form one great land glacier, which filled the Baltic. This theory assumed a state of things which exists nowhere in the world, and it was soon abandoned as untenable."

But we must remind Mr. Campbell that it is not at all necessary that such a state of things should exist anywhere in the world in the present day. In fact, according to the principles of the geometrical theory, it is impossible that it could, and in order to bring about conditions necessary for the formation and growth of the Agassizian glacier—to which we shall have occasion to advert in the sequel—it is only necessary to appeal to an increase in the length of the earth's minor axis.

Reverting again to the origin of the Northern Scandinavian glaciation, Mr. Campbell observes:—"If an ice-laden ocean current made these marks, then still further north marks of submergence ought to be found upon the isthmus." We question much whether the proofs of a general submergence of the extreme north of Scandinavia would go far to support Mr. Campbell's theory, for it has yet to be proved that the lowering of the isthmus immediately preceded the glaciation of the Scandinavian peninsula. This we regard as the defective part of our author's highly ingenious and symmetrical hypothesis; for we cannot see that the end of the last cold period in Scotland can be

aid to coincide with the closing of a strait by the rise of land in Lapland.

The writings of more than one observer in the inhospitable regions of Spitzbergen assure us that the general direction of the glaciation in that country is south-westerly; and from his description of several visits to the country, and from the most trustworthy written accounts, a knowledge of the general features of the rocky districts north and west of the Gulf of Bothnia can be easily acquired. Here, too, the glaciation seems to accord—so far as direction is concerned—with our author's hypothesis. In central and southern Scotland similar facts have been observed. In a very instructive map of the Northern Hemisphere appended to his first volume, Mr. Campbell has drawn a series of curves from the Pole towards the Equator. The space between two of these curves corresponds to the supposed course of the Baltic Arctic current. In another map similar curves are drawn, and one ends in the sea near Galway in Ireland.

The Galway curve corresponds in direction very nearly with many of the great valleys crossing Scotland, and it can be distinctly recognised, according to our author, in north-eastern Scotland. From the phenomena presented by the Sidlaw hills, he comes to the conclusion that sea-ice once drifted over them, when they were awash; that the ice came from the north-east by the Forfarshire hills, and grounded at 1300 feet on the "Giant's-hill," and at 1100 feet on Lundy-hill.

The country traversed by the New Scottish Central Railway presents analogous features. Following a branch of the Tay up to the famous pass of Killcraighie, through a series of drift and boulders, we find that at the 600-foot level there formerly existed a sea-loch. In the autumn of 1863 great boulders, freshly dug from the hillsides, were scattered in profusion along the line of railway. Where the rocks had been newly uncovered they even retained their fine polish. At Loch Awe ice marks at 1650 feet above the sea point at a second series of glens leading to the south-westward away to the Atlantic. Further north, at 1480 feet, the watershed is passed, where great piles of drift occur. "In a railway cutting opposite to one of these piles of drift a quartz-rock surface has been laid bare. It is ground very smooth, and grooves on it point N. 38 deg. E. down into Glen Truim, and S. 88 deg. W. up into the Glen. But in the heart of Caledonia boulders have been observed up to 3000 feet. The mountains there are all on the same pattern; in travelling from N.E. to S.W., or the reverse, it is possible to keep the line of the great escarpments or valleys; in traversing the country in any other direction it is necessary to cross the hills and glens.

From observations on the ice-marked rocks of Loch Maree, in Western Ross, our author infers that ice once crossed Scotland in that latitude at a level of more than 2000 feet from east and west. The evidence as to its direction seems tolerably conclusive. The glittering white quartz rock of the Highlands, which is so conspicuous a feature in the silurian rocks of that country, for a space occupying 100 yards in length by 20 in breadth, is grooved and polished on one side and fractured on the other, and for several miles along rock surfaces of the same kind are to be found in great abundance; a little to the eastward in the hills about Loch Fannich, there is an open space through which floating ice may have passed at a level of 1800 feet:—

"Looking through that gap, the first land of equal height is in Scandinavia; so this path, too, is clear, for in Scandinavia there are grooves on the watershed which point N.E., at about 2000 feet above the sea, near Tromsø."

This is certainly not a little remarkable, and would of itself go a long way towards supporting the hypothesis we are considering; but, as we shall endeavour to show in the sequel, such evidence is not of necessity only applicable to the Baltic current and Galway curve theory. In Easter Ross, on the metamorphic rocks of Loch Garve, striae are well preserved. At a height of 150 feet the grooves point in the north-east, in the direction of the Hill of Wyvis; there are piles of drift, and it seems as though a glacier had ploughed down to the sea level through the bed of the Blackwater. If these marks were made by a land glacier, it was twenty-five miles long at least; and this appears an insuperable objection to our author, yet it is contained in the very terms of the Agassizian doctrine, which supposes that in North America one huge glacier extended from the North Pole to the latitude of Georgia. Again, in the glacial map of Scotland, appended to his excellent work on the drift of that country, Mr. Geikie has shown that glaciers of very large dimensions moved over the hills of Argyleshire, in a north-easterly to south-westerly direction; and according to the work before us, the glacial stream moved south-westwards as far as Galway and Westport in Ireland. But if this stream was a glacier, it must have been 2000 feet thick at Shan-Folagh, and it was at least 60 miles wide on the Scotch coast. Here, too, Mr. Campbell supports the land ice hypothesis with the result of his acute observations.

Crossing over to Ireland, we are presented with a stately array of facts which seem to our author to support his doctrine. In the neighbourhood of Galway, and thence to Lough Foyle, the most striking evidences of glaciation are to be found. At Blackrock, in Galway Bay, these "guides" point to the broad Atlantic. At Castletbarrow, on the coast of Donegal, glaciated rocks appear at about 400 feet above the sea level. Ridges here again run N.E. and S.W., although the rocks are too much weathered to retain fine markings. But all these only seem to demonstrate more and more to Mr. Campbell the former existence in these parts of his favourite marine monster. We cannot say we are convinced that icebergs could have effected these operations. Sea ice in any form could not possess that plastic power necessary to produce the effects which Mr. Campbell has so forcibly and so ingeniously detailed, and the only thing in nature which could be land ice.

But, not content with the facts collected for years in all parts of north-western Europe, Mr. Campbell, in the true spirit of induction, went last summer to America, in order, as he tells us, to "test" his glacial theory on that vast continent. He crossed and re-crossed the Arctic current and Gulf Stream in order to judge of climates. Icebergs were seen by him in the Atlantic, thence to Labrador—from Cape Harrison, the Straits of Belleisle, the coasts of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the United States' coast were successively visited, and the curve representing the Belleisle glacial current of our author was followed through Canada and the Western States to St. Louis on the Mississippi.

The coast land lying between St. John's, in Newfoundland, and Cape Harrison, in Labrador, is proved to be at present rising; the rocks are much weathered, and very few striae are preserved. Here in water the sea near the coast is frozen to a thickness of eighteen inches or more, and in the early part of the year immense masses of the northern ice are brought down. During the winter months the so-called "anchor ice" forms at the bottom; therefore it must form readily about the base of stranded bergs. This great north-east to south-west sea glacier divides at the north end of Newfoundland—one portion flowing to the south-east, the other south-west through the Straits of Belleisle:—

"If such a current flowed over America, marks left by it ought to correspond to the movements. Striae ought to run from N.E. to S.W., where the stream could flow directly from N.W. to S.E., where it was shunted by land placed as Newfoundland is now placed."

In the 43rd chapter of his work, Mr. Campbell describes in detail the ice marks of North America. In Maine (New Hampshire), Vermont (Massachusetts), and New York, nearly through five degrees of latitude, glacial markings seemed to indicate an Arctic current flowing over the land 3000 feet above the present high-water mark. In New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, also, striae would seem to our author to be indicative of the passage of sea ice, and on the coasts of his volumes, Mr. Campbell has cleverly reproduced some markings met with on a slate rock in a street at St. John's. In Canada, striae at Quebec point up the valley of the St. Lawrence; at Montreal, Mountain, N.E.; at Niagara Falls, N.E.; and at Buffalo in nearly the same direction. Thus far American glaciation supports to some extent our author's theory.

In a series of papers contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* last year, Professor Agassiz attributes the glacial phenomena of North America and elsewhere to the former presence in the ice-marked countries of enormous polar glaciers stretching out far and wide over Europe and America, and attaining in latitude 44° N. a maximum thickness of 6000 feet. He considers that during the extreme rigour of the post-pliocene period the great western polar glacier must have at least descended to latitude 36° N., to the level of Malta, Algiers, Tunis, and Candia. This hypothesis has been accepted by many eminent observers of eminence by Switzerland and Italy, by Professor Ramsay and Mr. Geikie in this country, and by Sir William Logan in Canada. That striae rocks may yet be observed in abundance in latitude 36° N. will not be doubted, when it is remembered that Mount Parnassus and other localities further to the south nourish glaciers at moderate levels at the present day.

The theory of the illustrious Swiss Professor seems to us perfectly applicable to the phenomena presented by the European drift and scratched rocks, which Mr. Campbell has so industriously observed; for, if a great European Polar glacier moved by expansion from Northern Scandinavia as a centre south-westwards, towards Denmark and Britain, and south-eastwards towards Central Russia and Finland, it would of necessity produce an exact counterpart to the phenomena so long known in Europe, and which none have described more fully and clearly than Mr. Campbell.

In Sir Roderick Murchison's great work on Russia and the Ural Mountains, he distinctly alludes to the drift and erratics of Northern Russia as evidences of a glaciation in a south-easterly direction, and quotes Professor Keilhau, of Christiania, in support of his opinion. In the concluding chapters of the same work, also, he demonstrates that the striae and its eccentric direction in Norway, as well as in North-Eastern Lapland, prove the Northern Scandinavian mountain to have been the centre whence all the Russian and other glaciers radiated; at the same time he does not consider any subglacial glacial theory applicable to the Russian phenomena. In his inaugural address to the Royal Geographical Society in May last, the same honoured writer alluded in terms of the highest praise to the work before us. He passed in review the main points of Mr. Campbell's glacial theory, referring especially to his detailed observations on the scratched rocks of Wales, Scotland, and Scandinavia. In the conclusion of his address Sir Roderick remarks:—

"In reference to the vast region of North America Mr. Campbell adopts the opinion I have long entertained, that the striae of the North American rocks, and the distribution of Northern blocks over so immense an area, was produced when the country lay under the waters, rather than under the action of an extraneous theory, that in former times a vast glacier extended from the North Pole to Georgia, in the southern division of the United States, or over much more than half of the northern hemisphere, to say nothing of the non-existence of any loft mountains on the North, from which such a monster glacier could have been propelled from north to south, and have passed hundreds of miles in its southern progress. As many general readers will doubtless be gratified by perusing the telling anecdotes related by the author—often derived from scenes in his native highlands—so I also believe that as a powerful stimulus to thought, and as leading to highly interesting conclusions, the work of *First and Last* is well entitled to the attentive consideration of geologists and physical geographers."

## THE TIMES ON THE RUSSIAN DEFEAT.

LAST week we were amused with a very wonderful tale. It was reported from Tiflis that a Russian army of from 40,000 to 50,000 infantry, with cavalry and artillery in proportion, had been defeated by the people of Kokan, and forced back in hasty flight; when, we were not told, nor were the circumstances clearly stated. The story was demonstrably untrue. Whatever actual fact, if any, had been its origin, things could not have happened as described. As has been pointed out, the fortress of Akmedjid, or Akmeschet, which the Russians were said to have captured before their defeat, has been a Russian fortress for a dozen years, and the fort of Tchikimik, or Tchekmesket, which they, it was said, failed to take, and near which their alleged defeat took place, has actually been theirs for nine months. Its capture was described in our columns on the 10th of December last. The writer of the narrative further erred so wisely as to place Akmeschet near the mouth of the Syr-Daria, while it is really about 400 miles up the river. When to these circumstances was added that Tiflis, the place from which the news came, was not at all likely to get such a piece of news before us, much less about three weeks before us (for the date of the report is May 17), it became impossible to believe a story which in itself was improbable enough. The defeat of a large Russian army, even by 150,000 Asiatics, would have been a most astonishing event. Such being the aspect of the case, the surprising thing is that the story should have passed current as it did among our daily newspapers, with one or two honourable exceptions. The "leading journal" especially was caught, and in a leading article, two days after the report was published, swallowed the canard with a thorough-going abandon in which it would be a pity not to do justice. To add to the thoroughness of the blunder, it was committed not without warning. Some of its better informed contemporaries had pointed out the more obvious errors of the tale, and the

blunders it imports into the story are by far the most remarkable part of the business. There is a consistent system of error. In the opening sentences we are told that the Asiatic dominions of Russia lie to the north of the district designated as Central Asia, and that the isolated Sea of Aral lies almost in the centre of the district. Admitting the truth of the latter statement, lying to the north, would include, as they do, a large portion of the district. They embrace the northern shores of the Sea of Aral, and the whole country east and west of the northern section of that lake. The only explanation of the blunder is that the writer of the article must have been looking at a map twenty-five years old at least. The mistake is logically followed up, for he goes on to treat of the defeat as occurring to a Russian army far advanced from its base into the heart of the country, and not in the vicinity of a securely held frontier. With the help of a vigorous imagination, he has formed a theory of the campaign which vastly improves on the bald report Mr. Reuter furnished. The mountaineers of the east, it seems, were bad neighbours to the pastoral population of the west and north; the Turcomans and Tartars who live in the hills may have rendered life intolerable to the miserable herdsmen who traded with the neighbouring Russians and implored their aid; the geographical aspect of the country accounted for a Russian army being encamped in the plains with the goodwill of a portion of the inhabitants; on the flat shores of the Aral Lake the Russians found nothing but friends; their real work, supporting they had ulterior designs, would commence when their troops began to scale the mountain fortresses; and the Russian general wanted to seize an important city on the Syr-Daria—Tashkend—whence he could hold in check the mountain tribes. Such are some of the statements which imply what the writer conceived of the defeat as occurring in a campaign waged by the Russians to protect the shepherds of the plains in the west and north from the mountain tribes of robbers in the east, and in which the Russian army advanced from the Sea of Aral as a base eastward into the mountains. A very pretty theory, no doubt, and withal amusing to those who know nothing of the facts. A Russian army, so far now from needing to march from the Sea of Aral up the valley of the Syr-Daria, has a secure base at Akmeschet, 400 miles eastward, or at Turkestan and Tchekmesket, the captures of last year, still further to the east. Again, the mountains—to scale which, it is said, would be the first difficulty—are already in Russian possession, secured by numerous forts, which the submissive mountain tribes north of the Syr-Daria are alike Russian, and the Russians indeed hold a portion of the mountains south of the sources of that river. As for protecting the herdsmen of the plains from the robber mountaineers, against whom the herdsmen implored their aid, it is a pleasant fiction to contrast with the grim reality. The inhabitants of the plains through which Russia has advanced were of exactly the same race and habits as their supposed oppressors of the mountains, and, in particular, were equally pertinacious robbers. Robbers or not, never was the subjugation of savage tribes effected with more ruthless violence than Russia displayed in encamping her armies in the plains among people who are supposed to have sought her aid, but who really shared the same fate, and about the same time. The writer only gives an air of greater finish to his blunder by naming the Turcomans "of the north" among the plunderers against whom the Russian force advanced into Kokan. There may be some stray Turcomans so far north, but their homes, or rather the countries they infest, are Khiva, Bokhara, and the dominions of Persia on the Caspian, far to the south.

Logically carrying out his conception of the campaign, the writer is careful to note that Tashkend, the point aimed at by the Russians, is sufficiently near the hills to afford healthy quarters for an army—as if Russia had not hills enough there already. He seems to have been remembering our Indian experience, but those experiences unfortunately do not at all apply to the dry, healthy desert region of Central Asia. And next he tells that the distance of twenty-one days' march from the lake the city of Tchikimik (Tchekmesket) was found to be fortified and prepared for resistance. If this were true, no more astonishing march is recorded in history. Sherman's rate of marching through Georgia, with one of the best marching armies the world has seen, is thought to have been highly creditable, yet he advanced at the rate of little more than ten miles a day. But Tchekmesket is nearly six hundred miles from the Sea of Aral, so that it appears the Russian army of more than 50,000 men—infantry, cavalry, and artillery—marched at the rate of about thirty miles a day for twenty-one days in succession! The marvel of such an exploit should have been brought out in more distinct relief. It is all the more marvellous when we remember a previous article in the *Times* on the same subject, in which it was laid down as one of the defects of a Russian army that it could not march well. Whence the sudden recovery of the present year, and an ability to march at a rate hitherto unknown?

Perhaps the Russian army was composed of the same sort of military bodies as the "flying battalions" which the *Times* introduced in its records of the American war. More marvellous follow. This remarkable army was defeated by imaginary mountaineers—"Turcomans of the north"—and others, assembled at Tchekmesket to the number of 150,000—and was "hurried back precipitately upon the track of their six days' march." And the peril which remained, of a "fifteen days' flight through swampy plains before they could reach their first fortress on the Aral Sea," is further enhanced. In this highly romantic region armies are easily created. The Kokan army alone had inflicted the defeat, but two armies co-operate in the pursuit. Casting about for an explanation, we find that the Kokan army had been sustained by the moral support of a further army, which was assembled in Bokhara, under the chief of that country; and this force, we conclude, as it is the only other spoken of, is one of the two victorious armies

which had been giving moral support to Bokhara, suddenly found to be giving material support in Kokan. How this came about we are not told. Ordinary armies, proceeding from the frontier of Bokhara, would find it at least a three weeks' march to a point six days beyond Tchekmesket, where the fleeing Russians are now supposed to be. But perhaps the Bokharian armies, being native to that land of genii and magic, are gifted with a supernatural power of marching, more wonderful even than the Russian. The credit of these wonderful marches, it must be said, is exclusively due to the writer in the *Times*. Had he carefully looked at the report before him, he would have found that General Endokimoff is not said to have marched from the Sea of Aral to Tchekmesket. The report says that "on the side of Turkestan," evidently meaning the former province of Kokan, now Russian, which is not situated on the Sea of Aral. Nor did the Tiflis report represent the Bokharian army as co-operating in the pursuit; it was only mentioned as an army of observation on the frontier in the neighbourhood of Samarcand.

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QUEENSLAND.  
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FIDELITY CATTLE PROPERTIES.

one hundred feet six inches to the point of commencement  
or so much thereof which the said defendant is seized  
entitled to, or which he can either at law or in equity  
or dispose of, will be sold by Public Auction.  
Dated the Nineteenth day of September, 1865.



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lifting bags. Wright's Wharf. W. WRIGHT.

**KIDAR**—Two Cargoes of prime Richmond River  
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**TOE BALL**—All Black. THOMPSON, FINE and  
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DUNN, House and Cattle, Railway, 22 Pitt-  
street, 100 ft. 100 ft.

**DAIRY** Hay Barges, FORTES, also Barge and Horse,  
a large one— together or separate. GIBBS & HOGAN.

**STOUTER**—Second and second-hand ones cheap.  
See advertisement.

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 HOR SALE, a Cream-colored MALE - when the  
 owner has no further use of - quiet in harness, and  
 able, 282, Pitt-street. To be seen at the  
 CREAM-COLOURED MALE for SALE, quiet  
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 HOR SALE, 2 young HORSES and 4 COWS, W.  
 REDMAN, office, York-street, opposite Police Office.  
 HORSES and Vehicles run on Hire - GIBSON'S Re-  
 pository, opposite School of Arts, 282, Pitt-street.  
 PERSON having a Front Furnishd ROOM, in  
 George street, wishes to share it with a young Lady  
 who can attend the day. Charges, 3s. 6d. per week.  
 - HERALD OFFICE.  
 SHOP to LET, corner of Fintz and Kitley streets,  
 Sanny Bills.  
 BAKEHOUSE and two STORES. Apply at  
 Mrs. Kerren's, Orphan Boy Inn, Parramatta-street.

**VACANCY for a single Gentleman, at No. 8, O'Connell-street.**

**VACANCY for a Gentleman, or a Lady and Gentleman, at Mrs. Sanson's, Upper Fort-street.**

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**UNISHED APARTMENTS,** with board; separate  
 entrance, and bath or W.C., or larder, Elizabeth-  
 street.  
**LENE ROAD.—NO. 2 HOUSE.** Let 7 rooms,  
 &c.; stable and paddock. T. T. SUTHERLAND,  
 Esq.  
**YDIE PLACE.**—286, Elizabeth-street, to LET. Apply  
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**LARGE FRONT ROOM** for lady and gentleman, at  
 Mrs. Lewis's, 375, Elizabeth-street South.  
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 of the above terrace, situate at the corner of Bridge-  
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 Williams, 399, George-street.  
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 by W. Chatfield, Esq. Apply Messrs. Rowley  
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**RESPECTABLE Private BOARD AND RESIDENCE.**  
 Terms moderate. Apply Mr. SANFORD, 318, George-  
 street.  
**TO SHIPWRIGHTS** and others.—To LET, A Wharf,  
 with steam kiln, saw pits, &c. Chowne's, Plymouth-  
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**TO LET, APARTMENTS.** On Upper Fort-street.

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Apply to J. and E. Row, wholesale druggists.

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Glebe heights, past Arundel-terrace.

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 the harbour. T. B. Dearin, Pacific Wharf, Draught-  
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 T. B. Dearin, Pacific Wharf, Draught-street.  
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 Mr. H. Savage. Apply on the premises.  
 NO LET, a HOUSE, containing 6 rooms and a kitchen.  
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 NO LET, two ROOMS, Broad optional. No. 1, Swan-  
 street, Brisbane.  
 NO LET, a HOUSE, in Woodstock-terrace, Padding-  
 ton. Apply Taylor's Wharf, Sussex-street.  
 NO LET, HOUSE, 114, Dowling-street. Water laid  
 on, &c.  
 NO LET, COTTAGE, three rooms, in city; water and  
 gas laid, \$6 61 week. G. Smith, op. Supreme Court.  
 NO LET, a furnished HOUSE, 7 rooms; piano, &c.  
 Mrs. J. J. O'Connell-street.  
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